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ABSTRACT

Based on the assumption that awareness of certain aspects of underlying structure is basic to comprehending the meaning of a sentence, the module described in this report (English Sentence Structure: Programmed Exercises) is designed to increase the learner's awareness of English syntactic structure. The materials follow a programmed format with correct responses provided in the left-hand margin for immediate self-checking. Section one deals with basic sentence patterns and their parts and with parts of speech; section two distinguishes surface structure from underlying structure; and section three deals with subordinated sentences and provides experience with various kinds of sentence-combining problems related to exercises in analysis and paraphrase. The level of difficulty of the module was tested on three ninth-grade classes. Results indicate that the module would be appropriate for high school students of average and above average ability levels or for college students who have not had a course in transformational grammar. (The programmed exercise themselves compose the majority of the document.) (See related documents CS 200 570, and CS 200 571.) (HOD)

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AN INSTRUCTIONAL MODULE

DESIGNED TO HEIGHTEN AWARENESS OF SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

by

Roy C. O'Donnell

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The instructional module described herein is titled English Sentence Structure: Programmed Exercises. Although it includes some information about grammar, its basic purpose is to increase the learner's awareness of English syntactic structure. A copy of the module is included as Appendix to this report.

Background of the Project

The effort to develop the module described in this report was stimulated by the findings of Simons' (1970) study of "deep structure recovery" and reading comprehension. Simons found a correlation of .732 between scores on his "Deep Structure Recovery Test (D.S.R.T.)" and scores on a cloze test, and concluded that "the D.S.R.T. is the most important factor in reading comprehension as measured by the cloze test, when compared to I.Q., word knowledge and word recognition skill." In his discussion, Simons suggests that increased knowledge of the strategies used in recovering deep structure should lead to the development of diagnostic tests and then to development of instructional procedures and materials to remedy problems identified by these tests.

Although knowledge of strategies used in recovering deep structure is still severely limited and diagnostic tests are yet to be developed, it seems likely that instructional materials designed to heighten awareness of underlying syntactic structure would be valuable.

The attempt to develop such material grows out of the assumption that awareness of certain aspects of underlying structure is basic to ability to recover the deep structure of a given sentence, i.e., to comprehend its meaning.

Description of Materials

A previous attempt to develop materials similar to those described in this report was made by O'Donnell and King (1971). Their materials made use of both sentence analysis and re-synthesis, i.e., complex structures were divided into constituent "kernel" structures, which were then re-combined to form paraphrases of the original sentences. For example, students were asked to divide a sentence such as "It was fortunate that Sam had read the book" into two kernels: It was fortunate and Sam had read the book. They were then asked to recombine these kernels to form another sentence with similar meaning, such as "That Sam had read the book was fortunate" or "Fortunately, Sam had read the book." The objective was to develop awareness of underlying structure; it was hoped that such awareness would result in increased skill in deep structure recovery.

Since evidence of the effectiveness of the materials developed by O'Donnell and King was inconclusive, it seemed desirable to attempt a somewhat different approach to developing awareness of underlying structure. The differences between their materials and the module developed in this project are described in the following paragraphs.

A major difference between the two sets of materials is that of format. The O'Donnell and King materials allow for individual differences in time required for completion, but they assume the presence of a teacher who will give initial instructions, answer questions, and check the completed exercises for errors. The materials developed in the current project follow a programmed format, with correct responses provided in the left-hand margin for immediate self-checking.

Another difference is in the content of the materials. The O'Donnell and King exercises provide no information about English grammar and use no technical grammar terms and symbols (except sentence, kernel, and paraphrase). In the materials developed in this project, Section I deals with basic sentence patterns and their parts and with parts of Speech. In Section II, a distinction is made between surface structure and underlying structure. Underlying structure is represented in two sub-components, a structural index and the structural elements. The lexical items are specified by the structual elements component, and their arrangement in surface structure is prescribed by the structural index. Section III, the longest section of the module, deals with subordinated sentences and provides experience with various kinds of sentence-combining problems related to exercises in analysis and paraphrase.

The two sets of materials also contrast in length, the programmed exercises covering 24 pages and the others 61 pages. This difference in length and the difference in format would require the student to take two or three times as long to complete the O'Donnell and King materials.

Level of Difficulty

The level of difficulty of the English Sentence Structure module was tested on three ninth grade classes at Banks County (Georgia) High School during the month of February, 1973. The exercises were supplementary to regularly scheduled classroom activities. All work was done in the classrooms by students working individually. The following time schedule for the exercises was prescribed: February 1-9, pages 1-9; February 12-16, pages 10-15; February 19-23, pages 16-21; February 26-28, pages 22-24. Two achievement tests were given, Test 1 at the completion of the first 15 pages and Test 2 at the completion of the module.

A total of 66 ninth graders completed the module. Their percentile scores on the Cognitive Abilities, Verbal, section of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills ranged from 3 to 88, with a median of 35. Only 16 students scored above the fiftieth percentile. Percentage scores on achievement tests designed to measure degree of mastery of material presented in the module ranged from 22 to 90 with a mean of 55 and a median of 55. These data are summarized in Table 1. Fourteen students scored 70% or better on the achievement tests. Thus, if 70% is taken as the minimum passing score, approximately one student out of five achieved an acceptable level of mastery of the materials.

Table 1

High, Median, and Low Scores on English Sentence Structure Achievement and ITBS Cognitive Abilities for Ninth Graders

	ESS Achievement (percentage score)	ITBS Cognitive (percentile score)
High	90	88
Median	55	35
Low	22	3

Assuming the validity of interpretation of scores stated above, it seems evident that the level of difficulty of the materials was not appropriate for the majority of the students who used them. Since no student above the fiftieth percentile on cognitive abilities scored below 60% on the achievement test, it seems likely that the module would be appropriate for

high school students of average and above average ability levels. It might also be appropriate for college students who have not had a course in transformational grammar. Possibly, an adaptation of the materials could be made for the benefit of students of lower academic ability.

A copy of the module and the two achievement tests is included in the Appendix. O'Donnell and Smith (1973) report data on the effectiveness of the module as a means to heighten awareness of syntactic structure.

APPENDIX

ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURE: PROGRAMMED EXERCISES

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I. THE SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS

In the sentence "Students read," the SUBJECT is students and the PREDICATOR is read.

subject, predicator

Students is the _____; read is the _____.

In the sentence "Students read books," the COMPLEMENT is books.

Students, read

_____ is the subject; _____ is the predicator; books is the _____.

complement

In the sentence "Students read books sometimes," the ADVERBIAL is sometimes.

predicator

Students is the subject; read is the _____;

complement, adverbial

books is the _____; sometimes is the _____.

The four parts of the sentence "Students read books sometimes" are: 1) the subject, 2) the predicator,

complement, adverbial

3) the _____, and 4) the _____.

In "The girl ate her breakfast," there is a subject,

complement, adverbial

a predicator, and a _____, but no _____.

The girls

In "The girls sang yesterday," the subject is _____,

sang, yesterday

the predicator is _____, and the adverbial is _____;

complement

there is no _____.

predicator — "Children play" has a subject and a _____.

complement — but no _____.

The subject of a sentence is usually a NOUN or PRONOUN.

noun — In "Girls smile," the subject girls is a _____.

pronoun — In "They smile," the subject they is a _____.

The predicator of a sentence is a VERB, which is often accompanied by an AUXILIARY.

verb — In "Students read books," the predicator read is a _____.

In "The students are reading books," are is an

auxiliary — _____.

verb — In "Children are people," the predicator are is a _____.

noun — and the complement people is a _____.

complement — In "The children are happy," the _____ happy is an ADJECTIVE.

tall — In "Jack is tall," the complement _____ is an

adjective — _____.

When the predicator is are, were, am, or some other form

be — of the verb _____, the complement is sometimes a

noun, adjective — _____ and sometimes an _____.

predicator

The complement following a _____ other than a form of be is called a DIRECT OBJECT.

The complement hats in "Goats eat hats," is a

direct object

_____ _____.

The direct object in "The teacher gave the magazine to

the magazine

me" is _____ _____.

The adverbial in "Johnny sent a letter to Susie," is a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

The adverbial may be a single word like yesterday or

prepositional phrase

a _____ _____ like to Susie.

Some basic sentence patterns and their parts are shown below:

Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adverbial
1. Children	play	ø	ø
2. Children	are	people.	ø
3. The children	were	happy.	ø
4. The children	ate	breakfast.	ø
5. Children	read	books	sometimes.
6. They	gave	their papers	to me.

pronoun

The subject they in sentence 6 is a _____; the

nouns

other five subjects are _____.

6 The adverbial is a prepositional phrase in sentence ___.

4 The complement is a direct object in sentences ___,

6 5, and ___.

When the complement is a direct object, the predicator is a TRANSITIVE VERB.

4, 5, 6 Transitive verbs occur in sentences ___, ___, and ___.

2, 3 The predicator is a form of <u>be</u> in sentences ___ and ___.

II. SURFACE STRUCTURE AND UNDERLYING STRUCTURE

When the predicator is a transitive verb, a sentence may be either ACTIVE or PASSIVE in form. "The boy wrote the paper" is active; "The paper was written by the boy" is

passive _____.

The passive form of "Children read books sometimes" is

are, children "Books _____ read by _____ sometimes."

When the predicator is a verb like give or send, the adverbial can be either a prepositional phrase or an INDIRECT OBJECT.

verb The indirect object is placed between a transitive _____ and the direct object.

The indirect object form of "They gave their papers to

me me" is "They gave _____ their papers."

"Billy offered Tom a sandwich" could also be written

sandwich, Tom "Billy offered a _____ to _____. These two sentences are essentially the same in meaning.

written "The boy wrote the paper" and "The paper was _____ by the boy" have essentially the same meaning.

We can change the form of a sentence without changing the

meaning essential _____.

form — When we change the _____ of a sentence we change its SURFACE STRUCTURE.

surface — Two different _____ structures with the same meaning are said to have the same UNDERLYING STRUCTURE.

underlying — To put it another way, the same _____ structure

surface — may be represented by two different _____ structures.

The underlying structure of a sentence can be represented by STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS and a STRUCTURAL INDEX.

The arrangement of the structural elements in surface

structure — _____ is determined by the structural index.

elements — The words are included in the structural _____.

Structural Index	Structural Elements		Sentence
DCL:	the-boy-is-happy	==>	The boy is happy.
QST:	the-boy-is-happy	==>	Is the boy happy?

index — In the sentences above, the structural _____ tells whether the sentence will be a DECLARATIVE statement (DCL) or a QUESTION (QST).

surface — Additional information about the _____ structure

structural — may be included in the _____ index.

index

For example, the structural _____ distinguishes active from passive (PSV) sentences.

It also distinguishes sentences that have an indirect

prepositional

object (IO) from those that have a _____ phrase.

Structural Index	Structural Elements	Sentence
DCL, IO:	Jim-gave-his-ring-to-Sue ==>	Jim gave Sue his ring.
DCL, PSV	the-child-lost-the-book ==>	The book was lost by the child.

If the structural index is QST, a way of distinguishing one kind of question from another is needed. For example, "Is Jack happy?" and "Who is happy?" are both

questions

_____, but they do not ask for the same information.

Questions that ask who, what, or how may be indicated

index

in the structural _____ by QST-WH.

Structural Index	Structural Elements	Sentence
QST-WH	someone-is-happy ==>	Who is happy?
QST-WH	Jack-has-been-somewhere ==>	Where has Jack been?

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QST-WH Jim-got-in-somehow ==> How did Jim get in?

Complete the following sentences:

	Structural Index	Structural Elements	Sentence
Was	QST:	someone-was-smiling ==>	_____ someone smiling?
Who	QST-WH:	someone-was-smiling ==>	_____ was smiling?
What find	QST:	Fred-found-something ==>	_____ did Fred _____?
How climb	QST-WH:	Barney-climbed-over-the-wall-somehow ==>	_____ did Barney _____ over the wall?
Where	QST-WH:	Wilma-was-working-somewhere ==>	_____ was Wilma working?
Dino	DCL, IO:	Pebbles-gave-a-bone-to-Dino ==>	Pebbles gave _____ a bone.
Did Dino	QST, IO:	Pebbles-gave-a-bone-to-Dino ==>	_____ Pebbles give _____ a bone?
cooked, by	DCL, PSV:	Wilma-cooked-the-steaks ==>	The steaks were _____ ___ Wilma.
Were cooked	QST, PSV:	Wilma-cooked-the-steaks ==>	_____ the steaks _____ by Wilma?

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Read each sentence to find the missing structural elements and then fill in the blanks.

was	QST:	Lucy-_____-angry ==>	Was Lucy angry?
	DCL, IO:	Charlie-gave-a-bone-____-Snoopy ==>	Charlie gave Snoopy a bone.
to			
embarrassed	DCL, PSV:	Patty-_____-Charlie ==>	Charlie was embarrassed by Patty.
something	QST-WH:	_____-was-worrying-Linus ==>	What was worrying Linus?
	QST-WH:	Snoopy-was-hiding-_____ ==>	Where was Snoopy hiding?
somewhere			
someone	QST-WH:	_____-offended-Lucy ==>	Who offended Lucy?
stole	QST, PSV:	Snoopy-_____-the-_____ ==>	Was the blanket stolen by Snoopy?
blanket			

III. SUBORDINATED SENTENCES

Some structural elements in sentences are formed from SUBORDINATED SENTENCES.

In "Betty saw the bird that bit Dino," the RELATIVE

subordinated — CLAUSE (CLR) that bit Dino comes from a _____ sentence.

that — Relative clauses often begin with who, which, or _____.

Structural Index	Structural Elements	Subordinated Sentence
CLR:	the-man-was-honest ===>	who was honest
CLR:	the-man-wrote-the-book ===>	which the man wrote
CLR, PSV:	the-man-wrote-the-book ===>	which was written by the man
CLR:	We-saw-the-play ===>	that we saw

Complete the following subordinated sentences:

	Structural Index	Structural Elements	Sentence
who	CLR:	the-boy-lost-the-paper ===>	_____ lost the paper
which/that	CLR:	the-boy-lost-the-paper ===>	_____ the boy lost.

which/that	CLR, PSV:	the-boy-lost-the-	_____ was lost by
boy		paper ==⇒	the _____
who	CLR:	the-boy-gave-the-paper-	_____ gave the
		to-his-friend ==⇒	paper to his friend
which	CLR:	the-boy-gave-the-paper-	_____ the boy gave
his, friend		to-his-friend ==⇒	to _____ _____
whom	CLR:	the-boy-gave-the-paper-	to _____ the boy
		to-his-friend ==⇒	give the paper
Who, his	CLR, IO:	the-boy-gave-the-paper-	_____ gave _____
friend		to-his-friend ==⇒	_____ the paper

In "Barney said that Fred should go," the NOUN CLAUSE (CLN) that Fred should go comes from a _____ sentence.

subordinated

	CLN:	Fred-should-go ==⇒	that Fred should go
that	CLN:	Barney-lost-his-wallet ==⇒	_____ Barney lost his wallet.

In "For Fred to apologize was hard" the INFINITIVE PHRASE (INF) for Fred to apologize comes from a subordinated _____.

sentence

apologize	INF:	Fred-apologizes ==⇒	for Fred to _____
for, to	INF:	Barney-becomes-angry ==⇒	_____ Barney _____ become angry

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In "Barney's dropping the ball pleased Fred," the GERUND PHRASE (GER) Barney's dropping the ball comes from a subordinated sentence.

dropping	GER: Barney-dropped-the-ball ==>	Barney's _____ the ball
Fred's	GER: Fred-whistled ==>	_____ whistling

Complete the following subordinated sentences:

that	CLN: Fred-wrecked-the-car ==>	_____ Fred wrecked the car
for, to	INF: Fred-wrecked-the-car ==>	_____ Fred ____ wreck the car
Fred's	GER: Fred-wrecked-the-car ==>	_____ wrecking the car
that	CLR: Fred-wrecked-the-car ==>	_____ Fred wrecked

Subordinated sentences occur as elements of main sentences.

who	DCL: the-man [CLR: the-man-had-stolen-the-ball] saw-Fred ==>	The man _____ had stolen the ball saw Fred.
that	DCL: Fred-knew-it [CLN: the-man-had-seen-Fred] ==>	Fred knew _____ the man had seen him.
man's	DCL: It [GER: the-man-had-seen-Fred] worried-Wilma ==>	The _____ having seen Fred worried Wilma.

For, to — DCL: It [INF: the-man-remembered-Fred] was-easy ===> _____ the man _____ remember Fred was easy.

Read the sentences below to find the missing structural elements and then fill in the blanks.

Snoopy — DCL: Snoopy-wished-it [CLN: _____-could-look-tough] ===>

Snoopy wished that he could look tough.

the, boy — QST: Schroeder-is-the-boy [CLR: _____-_____-plays-the-piano] ===>

Is Schroeder the boy who plays the piano?

sleeps — DCL: it [INF: Linus-_____-without-his-blanket]-is-hard ===>

For Linus to sleep without his blanket is hard.

plays — DCL: it [GER: Schroeder-_____-the-piano]-pleases-Lucy ===>

Schroeder's playing the piano pleases Lucy.

it — QST: Charlie-thought-____ [CLN: his-team-could-win-a-game] ===>

Did Charlie think that his team could win a game?

the, girl — DCL: the-girl [CLR: _____-_____-smiled-at-Charlie]-is-Patty ===>

The girl who smiled at Charlie is Patty.

the, girl — QST: You-know-the-girl [CLR: Charlie-likes-_____-_____-best] ==>

Do you know the girl that Charlie likes best?

Charlie, speaks — QST: You-know-it [CLN: _____-never-_____-to-her] ==>

Do you know that Charlie never speaks to her?

eats — DCL: Charlie-hates-it [INF: Snoopy-_____-so-fast] ==>

Charlie hates for Snoopy to eat so fast.

Snoopy, pretends — QST: it [GER: _____-_____-to-be-a-pilot] seems-strange ==>

Snoopy's pretending to be a pilot seems strange.

The difference between "That the boy was sleepy seemed obvious" and "It seemed obvious that the boy was sleepy" is accounted for by a POSITION (PO) rule in the structural index.

DCL: it [CLN: the-boy-was-sleepy]-seemed-obvious ==>

That the boy was sleepy seemed obvious.

DCL: it [CLN-PO: the-boy-was-sleepy]-seemed-obvious ==>

It seemed obvious that the boy was sleepy.

The difference between "For Jack to climb trees is easy" and "It is easy for Jack to climb trees" is also accounted for by a position rule.

DCL: it [INF: Jack-climbs-trees]-is-easy ==>

For Jack to climb trees is easy.

DCL: it [INF-PO: Jack-climbs-trees]-is-easy ==>

It is easy for Jack to climb trees.

Complete the following sentence derivations.

DCL: it [INF: Lucy-fools-Charlie]-is-easy ==>

For, fool _____ Lucy to _____ Charlie is easy.

DCL: It [INF-PO: Lucy-fools-Charlie]-is-easy ==>

It, for ___ is easy _____ Lucy to fool Charlie.

INF-PO DCL: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

It pleases Lucy for Charlie to believe her.

INF DCL: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

For Charlie to believe her pleases Lucy.

CLN DCL: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

That Charlie believes her pleases Lucy.

CLN-PO DCL: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

It pleases Lucy that Charlie believes her.

QST, CLN-PO ___: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

Does it please Lucy that Charlie believes her?

INF-PO QST: it [_____: Charlie-believes-Lucy]-pleases-Lucy ==>

Does it please Lucy for Charlie to believe her?

In some sentences, elements not present in the underlying structure are added to the surface structure. For, to, and that are added elements in sentences such as the following:

for, to

DCL: it [INF, PO: Snoopy-sleeps] is-easy ==>

It is easy _____ Snoopy ___ sleep.

that

DCL: it [CLN, PO: Snoopy-is-sleepy] is-obvious ==>

It is obvious _____ Snoopy is sleepy.

In some sentences, elements present in the underlying structure are deleted in the surface structure. In the following example it is deleted in surface structure.

DCL: it [GER: Charlie-pitched] displeased-Lucy ==>

Charlie's pitching displeased Lucy.

The indefinite pronoun someone is often deleted:

someone

DCL: it [GER: _____-swims] is-fun ==>

Swimming is fun.

If the same noun occurs more than once, it is sometimes replaced by a pronoun and sometimes deleted:

he

DCL: Fred-said-it [CLN: Fred-could-throw-the-ball] ==>

Fred said that ___ could throw the ball.

DCL: Fred-decided-it [INF: _____-would-throw-the-ball] ==>

Fred decided to throw the ball.

In "The man standing on the corner is a detective," standing on the corner is an ABRIDGED RELATIVE CLAUSE (CLR-AB).

CLR: the-man-is-standing-on-the-corner ==>

who is standing on the corner

CLR-AB: the-man-is-standing-on-the corner ==>

standing on the corner

CLR: the-boy-is-on-the-Honda ==>

Who is on the Honda

CLR-AB: the-boy-is-on-the-Honda ==>

on the Honda

Complete the following sentence derivations:

DCL: the-man [CLR-AB: the-man-is-riding-the-horse] is-Cowboy Bob ==>

riding, the, horse

The man _____ _____ _____ is Cowboy Bob.

the, boy, is

DCL: the-boy [CLR-AB: _____-_____-____-climbing-the-tree]-is-Dennis ==>

The boy climbing the tree is Dennis

the, girl, is

DCL: the-girl [CLR-AB: _____-_____-___-on-the-bike]-is-Margaret ==>

The girl on the bike is Margaret

DCL: the-boy [CLR-AB: the-boy-is-under-the-porch]-is-Joey ==>

under, the, porch

The boy _____ _____ _____ is Joey.

CLR

DCL: the-lady [_____: the-lady-is-smiling-at-Dennis]-is-Mrs. Wilson ===>

The lady who is smiling at Dennis is Mrs. Wilson.

CLR:AB

DCL: the-man [_____: the-man-is-yelling-at-Dennis]-is-Mr. Wilson ===>

The man yelling at Dennis is Mr. Wilson.

"The tall boy plays basketball" is similar in meaning to "The boy who is tall plays basketball." An adjective like tall before a noun comes from an underlying structure similar to that of the Relative Clause. The structural index for an adjective before a noun is ADJ.

DCL: the-boy [CLR: the-boy-is-tall]-plays-basketball ===>

The boy who is tall plays basketball.

DCL: the-boy [ADJ: the-boy-is-tall]-plays-basketball ===>

The tall boy plays basketball.

Complete the following sentence derivations.

DCL: the-boy [ADJ: the-boy-is-short]-is-Dennis ===>

short, boy

The _____ _____ is Dennis.

the, man, is

DCL: the-man [ADJ: _____-_____-___-tall]-is-Mr. Mitchell ===>

The tall man is Mr. Mitchell.

ADJ

QST: the-man [____: the-man-is-angry]-is-Mr. Wilson ===>

Is the angry man Mr. Wilson?

is, little

DCL, PSV: the-boy [ADJ: the-boy-___-_____]-caused-a-lot-of-trouble ==⇒

A lot of trouble was caused by the little boy.

ADJ

DCL: the-lady [____: the-lady-is-pretty]-is-Mrs. Mitchell ==⇒

The pretty lady is Mrs. Mitchell.

In "My father, who is an English teacher, taught me grammar," who is an English teacher is a special kind of Relative Clause. It is called an APPOSITIVE CLAUSE (CLR-APP). In "My father, an English teacher, taught me grammar," an English teacher is an APPOSITIVE PHRASE (APP). The appositive phrase and the appositive clause are similar in underlying structure.

DCL: My-father-taught-me-grammar + [CLR-APP: My-father-is-an-English-teacher] ==⇒

My father, who is an English teacher, taught me grammar.

DCL: My-father-taught-me-grammar + [APP: My-father-is-an-English-teacher] ==⇒

My father, an English teacher, taught me grammar.

Complete the following sentence derivations.

the, man

DCL: the-man [CLR: ____-____-taught-me-composition] is-my-father ==⇒

who

The man ____ taught me composition is my father.

My
father
who

DCL: My-father-taught-me-composition + [CLR-APP: ____-_____-is-a-good-teacher] ===>

My father, ____ is a good teacher, taught me composition.

My, father
is
a, good, teacher

DCL: My-father-taught-me-composition + [APP: ____-_____-___-a-good-teacher] ===>

My father, __ _____ _____, taught me composition.

the, man

DCL: My-father-is-the-man [CLR: ____-_____-taught-me composition] ===>

My father is the man ____ taught me composition.

this
book
which

DCL: this-book-is-a-dictionary + [CLR-APP: I-use-_____-_____-often] ===>

This book, _____ I use often, is a dictionary.

this, book

DCL: I-use-this-book-often + [CLR-APP: _____-_____-is-a-dictionary] ===>

I often use this book, _____ is a dictionary.

which
this, book, is

DCL,PSV: I-use-this-book-often + [APP: _____-_____-___-a-dictionary] ===>

a, dictionary

This book, __ _____, is used often by me.

"Tommy became sleepy while he was waiting for the train" is similar in underlying structure to "Tommy became sleepy while waiting for the train," while he was waiting for the train is an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (CLA). While waiting for the train is an abridged adverbial clause (CLA-AB).

CLA: Tommy-was-waiting-for-the-train ==⇒

While he was waiting for the train

CLA-AB: Tommy-was-waiting-for-the-train ==⇒

While waiting for the train

Complete the following sentence derivations.

DCL: I-listen-to-the-radio-during-some-time [CLA: I-study-at-the-time] ==⇒

while — I listen to the radio _____ I am studying.

DCL: I-listen-to-the-radio-during-some-time [CLA-AB: ___-study-at-the-time] ==⇒

I while — I listen to the radio _____ studying.

DCL: I-do-my-homework-before-some-time [CLA: I-go-to-bed-at-the-time] ==⇒

before — I do my homework _____ I go to bed.

DCL: I-do-my-homework-before-some-time [CLA-AB: I-go-to-bed-at-the-time] ==⇒

going — I do my homework before _____ to bed.

An adverbial clause can be moved to the front of a sentence by a position rule.

DCL: I-eat-my-breakfast-after-some-time [CLA: I-get-up-at-the-time] ===>

I eat my breakfast after I get up.

DCL: I-eat-my-breakfast-after-some-time [CLA, PO: I-get-up-at-the-time] ===>

After I get up, I eat my breakfast.

time DCL: Lucy-becomes-angry-at-some-_____ [CLA: Snoopy-kisses-Lucy-at-the-time] ===>

Lucy becomes angry when Snoopy kisses her

DCL: Lucy-becomes-angry-at-some-time [CLA, PO: Snoopy-

time kisses-Lucy-at-the-_____] ===>

When _____ Snoopy kisses her, Lucy becomes angry.

DCL: Snoopy-became-hungry-during-some-time [CLA: Snoopy-

waiting was-_____-for-Charlie-at-the-time] ===>

while Snoopy became hungry _____ he was waiting for Charlie.

DCL: Snoopy-became-hungry-during-some-time [CLA-AB: Snoopy-was-waiting-for-Charlie-at-the-time] ===>

waiting Snoopy became hungry while _____ for Charlie.

during DCL: Snoopy-became-hungry-_____-some-time [CLA-AB, PO: Snoopy-was-waiting-for-Charlie-at-the-time] ===>

While _____ waiting for Charlie, Snoopy became hungry.

Some sentences can be interpreted in more than one way. For example, "Racing cars can be exciting" may refer to cars that are racing or to someone's racing of cars. Such sentences are made possible by the fact that we can sometimes put two different underlying structures the same way in surface structure.

DCL: cars [CLR-AB: cars-are-racing]-can-be-exciting ==>

Racing cars can be exciting.

DCL: it [GER: Someone-races-cars]-can-be-exciting ==>

Racing cars can be exciting.

Complete the following sentences.

DCL: it [CLN, PO: the-policemen-were-shooting-something]-frightened-the-boys ==>

It, that ___ frightened the boys _____ the policemen were shooting something.

DCL: it [CLN, PO: someone-was-shooting-the-policemen]-frightened-the-boys ==>

It, that ___ frightened the boys _____ someone was shooting the policemen.

policemen DCL: it [GER: the-_____-were-shooting-something]-frightened-the-boys ==>

The shooting of the policemen frightened the boys.

someone DCL: it [GER: _____-was-shooting-the-policemen] frightened-the-boys ==>

The shooting of the policemen frightened the boys.

Sammy DCL: Sammy-likes-it [INF: _____-grows-plants] ==>

Sammy likes to grow plants.

plants DCL: Sammy-likes-plants [CLR: _____-are-growing] ==>

Sammy likes plants that are growing.

Sammy DCL: Sammy-likes-it [GER: _____-grows-plants] ==>

Sammy likes growing plants.

plants DCL: Sammy-likes-plants [CLR-AB: _____-are-growing] ==>

Sammy likes growing plants.

English Sentence Structure, Test 1

Date:_____ Name:_____

I. Read the following sentences:

A. The boys gave the book to the teacher.
B. The boys gave the teacher the book.
C. The book was given to the teacher by the boys.
D. The boys were given the book by the teacher.

1. The subject in sentence A is _____.

2. The predicator in sentence A is _____.

3. The adverbial in sentence A is _____.

4. The direct object in sentence B is _____.

5. The indirect object in sentence B is _____.

6. The two sentences that are passive in form are _____ and _____.

7. The three sentences that are most alike in their underlying structure are _____, _____, and _____.

II. Write a sentence from each of the underlying structures represented below.

	structural index	structural elements
1.	DCL	someone-ate-the-cookies ==>
2.	QST-WH	someone-ate-the-cookies ==>
3.	DCL-PSV	Susie-baked-the-cookies ==>
4.	DCL-IO	Susie-gave-the-cookies-to-him ==>
5.	QST-IO	Susie-gave-the-cookies-to-him ==>

III. Write a sentence from each of the underlying structures represented below.

1. DCL: Patty-is-the-girl [CLR: the-girl-smiled-at-Charlie] ==>

2. QST: Patty-is-the-girl [CLR: the-girl-smiled-at-Charlie] ==>

3. DCL: it [INF: Charlie-fools-Lucy] -is-hard ==>

4. DCL: it [GER: Schroeder-plays-the-piano] -pleases-Lucy ==>

5. DCL: it [CLN: the-boy-was-angry] -seemed-obvious ==>

English Sentence Structure, Test 2

Date:_____ Name:_____

I. Write a sentence from each of the underlying structurer represented below.

1. DCL: it [INF: Snoopy-howls] -is-easy ==>

2. DCL: it [INF, PO: Snoopy-howls] -is-easy ==>

3. DCL: it [CLN: Snoopy-howls] -is-obvious ==>

4. DCL: it [CLN, PO: Snoopy-howls] -is-obvious ==>

5. DCL: the-boy [CLR: the-boy-is-big] -plays-football ==>

6. DCL: the-boy [ADJ: the-boy-is-big] -plays-football ==>

7. DCL: My-father-teaches-mathematics [CLR, APP: My-father-is-a-former-engineer] ==>

8. DCL: My-father-teaches-mathematics [APP: My-father-is-a-former-engineer] ==>

9. DCL: I-read-my-literature-assignment-before-some-time [CLA: I-went-to-bed-at-the-time] ==>

10. DCL: I-read-my-literature-assignment-before-some-time [CLA, AB: I-went-to-bed-at-the-time] ==>

II. Rewrite each of the following sentences changing the surface structure but not the underlying structure.

1. A big man can work hard.

2. That he is strong is obvious.

3. She gave the paper to me.

4. John wrote the paper.

5. I tried to write the paper while watching TV.

6. It is easy for her to laugh at us.

III. Rewrite each of the following sentences so that it can be interpreted in only one way.

1. The shooting of the hunters scared me.

2. Sailing boats can be dangerous.

3. The boys like flying kites.

4. The teacher spoke to the girl with a smile on her face.

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